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LINGUISTICS IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL.

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THIS GUIDE WAS PREPARED FOR THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL TEACHER WHO HAS HAD LITTLE OR NO TRAINING IN LINGUISTICS. OPPORTUNITIES FOR CALLING ATTENTION TO THE LINGUISTIC ASPECTS OF LANGUAGE OCCUR FREQUENTLY IN THE CLASSROOM, AND THIS GUIDE PROVIDES SUGGESTIONS FOR MAKING USE OF THEM. FOUR INITIAL CHAPTERS DISCUSS THE USAGE OF LINGUISTICS, PROVIDE A GLOSSARY OF LINGUISTIC TERMS, SUGGEST GUIDING PRINCIPLES FOR TEACHERS, AND DESCRIBE THE LINGUISTIC CONCEPTION OF LANGUAGE. SIX SUCCEEDING CHAPTERS PRESENT INDIVIDUAL LINGUISTIC CONCEPTS--PHONOLOGY, MORPHOLOGY, FORM CLASSES, SYNTAX, DIALECT, AND USAGE. EACH CHAPTER HAS AN INTRODUCTORY SECTION THAT DEFINES AND ILLUSTRATES THE CONCEPT, AND A SECTION WITH ACTIVITIES FOR DEMONSTRATING THE CONCEPT TO THE STUDENTS. A CONCLUDING CHAPTER PRESENTS A BIBLIOGRAPHY OF ABOUT 50 TITLES. (DR)

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Linguistics In The Elementary School

Primary Level

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Sam Houston State College
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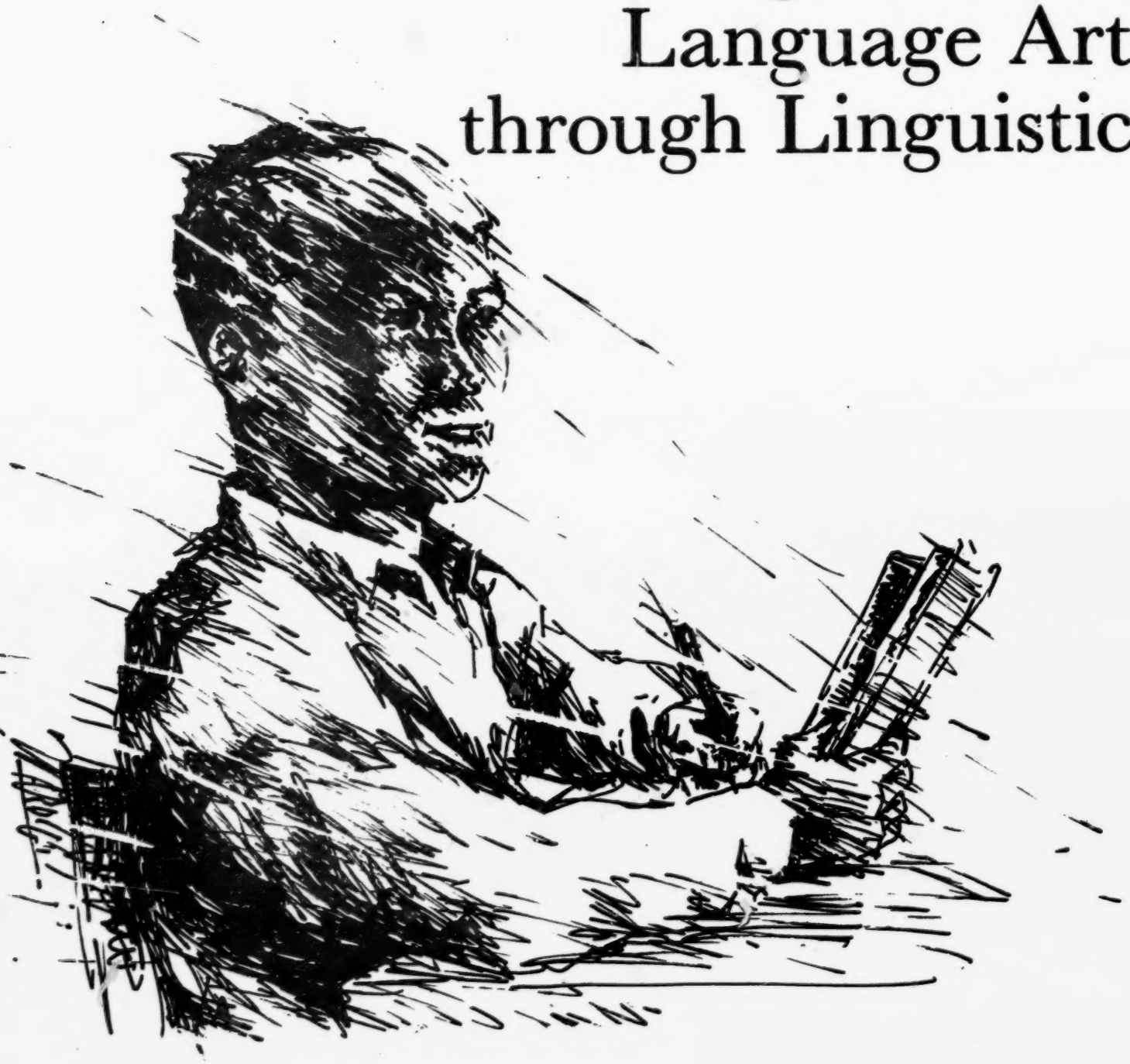
June, 1967

Adding Luster to Language Arts through Linguistics



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Language is, without doubt, the most momentous and at the same time the most mysterious product of the human mind.

--Susanne Langer

U. S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
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LINGUISTICS IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

Written and Compiled
by
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of
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Wondrous the English language, language of live men,
Language of ensemble, powerful language of resistance,
Language of a proud and melancholy stock, and of all
    who aspire,
Language of growth, faith, self-esteem, rudeness, justice,
    friendliness, prudence, decision, exactitude, courage.

Walt Whitman

FOREWORD

Much of the new instructional material in elementary school language arts includes sections on linguistics. Many elementary classroom teachers having had little or no formal instruction in an area entitled linguistics have some apprehension as their background of understanding and ability to utilize this in their own classrooms. In this Guide, therefore, the vocabulary and basic elements of linguistics have been explained in such a manner that the average elementary school teacher can understand the content and can identify many aspects of their present-day instruction which are actually part of linguistics.

Teachers have many incidental teaching opportunities in which phonology, morphology, and the nature of language are natural ingredients. These opportunities in addition to direct instruction during the spelling, reading, oral and written language periods of the school day will extend the child's understanding of the various levels of spoken English, of the history and development of our language, of usage, and of the basic structure of language forms. Suggestions are made to assist the teacher in her efforts to make the study of linguistics interesting and effective.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

PARTICIPANTS..... ii

FOREWORD..... iii

I. USING LINGUISTICS TO ADD LUSTER TO THE LANGUAGE ARTS..... 1

II. A GLOSSARY..... 7

III. SOME GUIDING PRINCIPLES FOR THE ELEMENTARY TEACHER..... 8

IV. THE NATURE OF LANGUAGE..... 10

V. PHONOLOGY..... 16

VI. MORPHOLOGY..... 32

VII. FORM CLASSES..... 47

VIII. SYNTAX..... 58

IX. DIALECT..... 70

X. USAGE..... 77

XI. BIBLIOGRAPHY..... 83

USING LINGUISTICS TO ADD LUSTER TO THE LANGUAGE ARTS

Primary Grades

One of the most interesting and exciting frontiers to be explored in the English language arts in the twentieth century is the frontier of language itself. Useful insights for teaching language and strengthening language skills can be found in the nature of language and, more particularly in the structure of American English.

Children learn the basic sound and grammatical structures of English during pre-school years. Long before they enter school they speak with meaning and listen with comprehension. School brings the necessity to learn to read language and write it.

Children's interest in language is evident to anyone who listens to them. Teachers can capitalize on this interest to teach basic ideas about language. As Bruner has argued convincingly in The Process of Education (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1960) any important concept can be taught in some honest form to all age levels. As early as first grade, elementary school children can be helped to develop several fundamental concepts about language, concepts which can be expanded and deepened throughout the years of elementary school.

The materials included in this guide for language study in the elementary grades consist of (1) a brief introduction to modern language study (for the teacher who

has not had an opportunity to acquire such knowledge) (2) linguistic games and activities useful in elementary classrooms.

The language program for the elementary school is directed toward the following goals:

1. Giving children an understanding of the nature of language.
2. Giving children an understanding of the sound (phonology) of the language and showing them that punctuation is a written representation of the suprasegmental features of spoken discourse.
3. Displaying to children the nature of word formation (morphology).
4. Showing children that English is primarily a word-order language and that their written sentences can be revised by adding, cutting, shifting, and changing.
5. Giving children a basic understanding of the history of our language, including such concepts as the origin of words, the levels of usage, and the dialects of our language.

It should be understood that a formal study of linguistics is not feasible for the elementary school child. Yet the study of phonology, morphology, syntax, the history of the language and its dialects, does have a place in the elementary school; it can serve first as a preparation for

a later formal junior high school study of linguistics and second as a device for freeing students and teachers from prescriptive attitudes toward language. Since the child ordinarily enters school with a full intuitive grasp of the sound, morphology, and syntactic repertory of his language, he may appropriately be exposed to a language program which will strengthen his grasp.

A GLOSSARY

Linguistics. The study of human speech in its various aspects (as the nature, structure, and modifications of languages, or a language including especially such factors as phonetics, phonology, morphology, accent, syntax, semantics, grammar, and the relation between writing and speech.)

Phonology. The science of speech sounds including especially the history and theory of sound changes in a single language or in two or more related languages considered together for comparative purpose.

Morphology. A study and description of word-formation in a language including inflection, derivation, and compounding.

Syntax. Sentence structure: the arrangement of word forms to show their mutual relations in the sentence.

Semantics. The historical and psychological study and the classification of changes in the meanings of words and forms including such phenomena as specialization and expansion of meaning, meliorative and pejorative tendencies, metaphor, and adaptation.

Phonemics. A branch of linguistic analysis that consists of the study of phonemes.

Phonetics. The study and systematic classification of the sounds made in the spoken utterance as they are produced by the organs of speech and as they register on the ear.

Phonics. A method of teaching beginners to read and pronounce words by learning the phonetic value of letters and

letter groups.

Phoneme. The smallest unit of speech that distinguishes one utterance from another.

Phonetic Alphabet. A set of symbols used for phonetic transcription.

Morpheme. A meaningful linguistic unit whether a free form (as pin, child, load, spray) or a bound form (as the -s of pins, the -hood of childhood, and the -ed of prayed) that contains no smaller meaningful parts.

Grapheme. The sum of all written letters and letter combinations that represent one phoneme.

Segmental Phoneme. One of the phonemes (as K, A, T in cat, tack, act) of a language that can be assigned to a relative sequential order of minimal segments.

Suprasegmental Phonemes. One of the phonemes (as pitch, stress, juncture) of a language that occur simultaneously with a succession of segmental phonemes.

Inflectional Form. A morpheme added to a word which changes the base word's grammatical meaning without changing its part of speech classification; e. g.the plural -s, the past tense -ed.

Derivational Form. A morpheme added to a word which changes the part of speech classification of the base word; e. g. -ly which changes an adjective to an adverb.

Determiner. A word belonging to a group of limiting noun modifiers that in English consists of a, an, any, each,

either, every, neither, no, one, some, the, that, those, this, these, possessive adjectives (as my), and is characterized by occurrence before descriptive adjectives modifying the same noun (as that in "that big yellow house" or his in "his new car").

Transformation. A change in a phrase or sentence pattern which alters grammatical items or grammatical structures while keeping the same (or as nearly as possible the same) total meaning.

Expansion. The addition of optional elements to a basic phrase or sentence pattern; e. g. the very amiable man is an expansion to the man.

Intonation Pattern. A unit of speech melody in a language or dialect that contributes to the total meaning of an utterance.

Dialect. A variety of language that is used by one group of persons and has features of vocabulary, grammar, or pronunciation distinguishing it from other varieties used by other groups.

Stylistics. The study of optional variations in the sounds, forms, or vocabulary of a language as characteristic of different users of the language, different situations of use, or different literary types.

Levels of Usage. Varieties of style which are correlated with the social level of the speaker or writer and the situation in which he speaks or writes.

Adapted from: Nebraska Curriculum Center. A Curriculum for English: Language Explorations for the Elementary Grades. Lincoln, Nebraska: University of Nebraska Press, 1966.

SOME GUIDING PRINCIPLES FOR THE ELEMENTARY TEACHER

1. Principles of phonology can be employed in teaching reading, spelling, and punctuation.
2. The recognition of morphemes and what they do can lead to the mastery of vocabulary. The knowledge of meaningful affixes, both inflectional and derivational, not only serves to identify words according to the form classes but also helps to identify the lexical meaning of words. The skillful teacher will teach base words and affixes only where they are relevant and understandable.
3. The parts of speech may be approached as either form classes or structure words. The emphasis here is on slots or frames, possible positions in the sentence, and the structure words which signal each form class.
4. The teacher's knowledge of syntax (meaningful combinations of words) can be incidentally included in explanations of sentences from reading selections. The teacher can also use his knowledge of syntax to help the student become more competent in written expression by teaching the student to vary basic sentence patterns by adding, cutting, shifting, and changing.
5. Until recently, teachers have concentrated on teaching students the "rules" that govern our speech and writing.

Under the linguistic approach teachers attempt to describe the workings of our language. This new emphasis on description makes the idea of "correctness" less important than it has been in the past: instead of emphasizing conformity to a single standard, linguists and English teachers are now investigating the many different ways in which a single idea can be communicated. Emphasis on the variety of the English language leads almost inevitably to questions about the history of the language--such questions as the origins of words, the dialects of the language, the levels of usage, etc.

THE NATURE OF LANGUAGE

Language, which has always been a "tool" for teachers, is now not only a tool but a field of exploration in its own right. Teachers now need to recognize the necessity of understanding the workings of the language they use in teaching. Linguistics has contributed the following facts about the nature, structure, and function of language which should be basic to each teacher's understanding.

1. Language has a pattern; it consists of an orderly arrangement of sounds.
2. The system of language which we use is without natural, necessary, or logical reason. For example, a dog is the same animal whether we use the English word dog, the Spanish word, perro, or the French word, chien. This arbitrary nature of language refers to the choice of sounds and to the meanings which a particular society attaches to them.
3. Language is a human activity. Hence we deny that animal communication is language, even though animals undoubtedly do communicate through sounds. These animal sounds, however, are neither systematic nor arbitrary. And neither are all sounds made by human beings language; involuntary cries of rage, pain, and joy are not examples of language.
4. The purpose of language is the communication of thought. Human beings choose to utter certain

patterned sounds that are purposeful, that will transfer thought from speaker to hearer.

5. Languages manage this communication by articulated sounds (sometimes called vocal symbols).
6. The definition of language does not include the written symbols which we use to express words. Writing is a representation of sound; but writing is not language itself.

These concepts can be introduced incidentally to students in the primary grades through such activities as those on the following pages.

NATURE OF LANGUAGE

PRIMARY

Activities

Human and Non-Human Communication

The teacher can discuss the way animals communicate with each other. Note that animals do not speak as human beings do, but that they do communicate. Ask children to name the ways in which animals make signs to one another and for what purpose. Lead them to discover how "animal talk" is different from "people talk". This discovery may be accomplished in many different ways.

a. Take a trip to the zoo. Have children to watch for animal "talk."

b. Let children imitate the animals they know while other children guess which animal they are.

c. Ask children such questions as when a baby kitten whines what does the mother kitten do? When do cats purr? When do dogs growl? What do you do when a dog growls at you? What does the dog mean? What sound does a mother cow make when she calls her baby calf?

Learning Another Language

Find out if any of your students know another language. You may write the word for girl and boy in both languages upon the blackboard. Young children might like to draw a picture and label it using both words.

A lesson in Differences

If children should find a certain dialect or idiolect funny, a possibility in correcting this might be to read "The Ugly Duckling" to the children. Discuss the many different ways that people are different and point out that the world would not be much fun if everything looked just alike.

Sign Language for People

The teacher can have a child come to the front of the room and motion with the finger for another child to come forward. Discuss what the finger motion meant. Other signs the children may be led to use are:

a. With finger across mouth, the "be quiet sign."

b. The wave of the hand for "hello" or "good-by."

c. The shrug of the shoulders indicating a lack of understanding.

d. Teeth chattering sign indicating a feeling of coldness.

Homonyms

The teacher can place sentences which portray homonyms upon the blackboard. Be sure to use words within the first grade reading vocabulary when writing on the board. More words may be reached orally.

Examples:

Jane has a new coat.
I knew the story before I came to school.

Mother said, "No, you can't go to the show."
Do you know where Billy is?

Words Which Portray Feelings

A realization that words show how people feel may be brought about by asking the children the following questions:

a. How would I feel if I touched a hot iron and I said, "Oh!"

b. How would I feel if I hung my head and said, "Oh dear me!"

c. How would I feel if I took a deep breath and said, "Wh-----?"

Pick the Right Kind of Word

Children are asked to select a word or words that make sense in the sentences below.

The little _____ likes to play dolls.
girl monkey pretty

Dick likes the _____ ball.
big red baby little

How Would We Say the Following Sentences?

Children are directed to re-arrange the following groups of words into sentences:

Laughed Mary did?
Ran home Spot.
Ball plays Dick.

Children love to unscramble their sentences.

Non-Verbal Communication

The teacher discusses with the students how SOS messages can be sent with flags, (also other messages) and how no one is actually talking but words are being used.

Morse code may be discussed here as non-verbal communication.

The dong of the clock as it strikes the hour may be discussed

as non-verbal communication.

From O'Donnell, Mabel. All Through the Year. Evanston, Illinois: Harper and Row, 1966, (p. 84).

Visible Non-Verbal Communication

The traffic signals may be discussed as giving messages yet they are not talking. Alarm clocks are giving messages while they are actually not talking.

O'Donnell, Mabel. op. cit., p. 73.

PHONOLOGY

The sounds of our language are called phones. The study of how we produce speech sounds is called phonetics. The linguist listens carefully to people as they speak. When he hears someone say pat, he notes that three distinctive (different) sounds are made. By an elaborate system of analysis, he can note three distinctive sounds. He also notices that if b sound is substituted for the beginning of pat that a different word is developed. He concludes, therefore, that p and b are distinctive units of sound. Distinctive units of sound then make for differences in meaning.

The linguist, therefore, keeps track of the sounds used in a language, puts down the distinctive sounds (such as p and b), and calls these units of sound phonemes. Phonemes, then, are the names given by the linguist to the categories within which we group sounds or "phones" that are distinctive in our language.

Two methods are used to analyze the sounds of language: the phonetic method and the phonemic method. The phonetic method is concerned with actual sound differences, whether meaningful or not. Thus, there is a real difference in the way in which we say the two p's in pip. Linguists usually employ brackets[ ] to indicate phonetic transcription. However, most modern linguists employ the phonemic method of analysis, which means that they analyze the sounds of the

language only to the extent that there is a difference implied in the word pip, namely/p/. (Note that phonemic symbols are enclosed in slant lines.)

In determining what the phonemes are, we do not start from the letters from which our language is written. On the contrary, we try to put spelling out of our minds and to listen to the sounds of speech as they strike our ears. The method that is most widely used is that of describing the parts of the organs of speech which are used in making the sounds.

We start with the observation that sounds fall into two major types: those in which the stream of air coming from the lungs passes through the mouth and nose with no audible friction (vowel sounds), and those in which audible friction is produced (consonant sounds). Vowel sounds may be further classified according to the position in which the tongue is held in the mouth during their pronunciation: is it raised toward the roof of the mouth, or is it down in the bottom of the mouth, or is it midway between the two positions? According to its position we classify a vowel sound as front, central, or back. In some vowel sounds it makes a difference whether the tongue muscle is tense or lax.

The vowels of English are described in Chart I. Note that two phonemic transcriptions are given. The column on the left, labeled "IPA-Kenyon-Pike", is based on the system of the International Phonetic Alphabet as adapted to American

English by John S. Kenyon and Kenneth L. Pike. The column on the right is headed "Trager-Smith" from the names of the two scholars (George L. Trager and Henry Lee Smith, Jr.) who developed it. Neither of these two transcriptions has, as yet, been completely accepted throughout the field of linguistic analysis.

CHART I

VOWEL PHONEMES OF AMERICAN ENGLISH

The vowel sound of:	Phonetic Description	IPA-Kenyon-Pike	Trager-Smith
beat or beet	high-front-tense	/i/	/iy/
bit	high-front-lax	/I/	/i/
bait or bate	mid-front-tense	/e/	/ey/
bet	mid-front-lax	/E/	/e/
bat	low-front-lax	/æ/	/æ/
hot	low-central-lax	/a/	/a/
but	mid-central-lax	/ɤ/	/ə/
bought	mid-back-lax	/ɔ/	/ɔ/
boat	mid-back-tense	/O/	/ow/
book	high-back-lax	/U/	/u/
boot	high-back-tense	/u/	/uw/

DIPHTHONGS OF AMERICAN ENGLISH

The diphthong of:	IPA-Kenyon-Pike	Trager-Smith
bite, height, etc.	/ay/	/ay/
cow, loud	/aw/	/aw/
boy	/y/	/oy/

The consonant phonemes involve audible friction produced by obstructing the breath-stream at various points along its way from the lungs through the windpipe and mouth. We can classify consonants in terms of the characteristics of the obstruction: Where is it formed in the mouth? How is it formed? During the pronunciation of the consonant, are the vocal cords vibrating or not? Consonants may be of the following types:

Labial (produced with the lips)

Labio-dental (produced with the upper teeth and lower lips)

Dental (produced with the tip of the tongue against the inside of the upper front teeth)

Alveolar (produced with the tip of the tongue against the inside of the gum ridge)

Palatal (produced with the top of the tongue raised against the front of the palate)

Velar (produced with the top of the tongue raised against the back of the palate)

Further, consonants may be produced with the breath either completely stopped off or being pushed past an obstruction. In case there is an obstruction, it is normally formed by the lips and teeth, or else by the tongue inside the mouth. The breath may be forced evenly over the entire area of obstruction (fricative); down a depression in the center of the tongue (a hissing or sibilant sound); over one or both sides of the tongue (lateral). The top of the tongue may be curled over or the tongue may be bunched up in the back of the mouth

(retroflex). A sound produced with the nose used as a resonance chamber is nasal. If the vocal chords are vibrating during its production, a consonant is called voiced; if not it is voiceless. Chart II indicates the usual consonant sounds of American English.

CHART II

CONSONANT PHONEMES OF AMERICAN ENGLISH

Initial Consonant of	Technical Description	Phonemic Transcription
pin	voiceless bilabial stop	/p/
tin	voiceless alveolar stop	/t/
kin	voiceless velar stop	/k/
bin	voiced bilabial stop	/b/
din	voiced alveolar stop	/d/
get	voiced velar stop	/g/
fin	voiceless labio-dental fricative	/f/
thin	voiceless dental fricative	/e/
vim	voiced labio-dental fricative	/v/
this	voiced dental fricative	/ð/
sin	voiceless dental sibilant	/s/
shin	voiceless palatal sibilant	/š/ or /S/
zip	voiced dental sibilant	/z/
z in azure	voiced palatal sibilant	/ž/ or /3/
chin	voiceless palatal stop	/č/ or /tʒ/
gin	voiced palatal stop	/g/ or /dʒ/
mint	voiced labial nasal	/m/
name	voiced alveolar nasal	/n/
final sound of sing	voiced velar nasal	/ŋ/
limb	voiced dental or alveolar lateral	/l/
rim	voiced retroflex	/r/

The vowel and consonant phonemes are often referred to as segmental phonemes, since they seem to come one after the other and form, as it were, segments of the stream of speech. In addition to these, there are other kinds of phonemic features, which occur together with sequence of these segmental phonemes; under this heading the linguist includes features of stress, intonation (or pitch) and juncture. Since they seem to be over and above the segmental phonemes, they are often called suprasegmental phonemes.

Under the heading of stress, we must distinguish at least three levels in English. Every normal simple word of more than one syllable has a syllable which is more heavily stressed than the others; we say that such a syllable has full or primary stress, and that the other syllables have weak stress. In phonemic transcription the acute accent (') is normally used to represent full stress, being written over the symbol standing for the vowel phoneme; weak stress is left unmarked. Furthermore, in compound words, there is an intermediate level of stress, which takes the place of full stress in one or more of the words which make up the compound. This intermediate stress is normally marked in phonemic transcription with a grave accent (\).

Phonemes follow each other in the stream of speech and are joined or separated in various ways; to refer to the way phonemes are joined, we use the term juncture. There are four degrees of juncture, "plus" juncture (+),"single

bar" juncture (/), "double bar" juncture (//), and "double cross" juncture (#). In brief, as applied by phonemic analysts, the juncture marks may be thought of as follows: plus juncture roughly indicates word divisions, single bar juncture roughly indicates word divisions, single bar juncture roughly indicates word-group or phrase divisions, double bar juncture roughly indicates comma breaks, and double cross juncture roughly indicates end-punctuation breaks.

PHONOLOGY IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PROGRAM

The fact that phonological description begins with speech and has provided an objective phonemic symbol for each meaningful sound distinction means that linguists can study the extent to which the conventional alphabet is or is not a systematic sound alphabet and construct reading materials which rely on the element of system in the alphabet's representation of sound. The linguist can further reduce English spelling to a system by collecting words which start with a specific sound as well as noting the different spelling variations for the sound. Many of the exercises provided in the activities aim to show the relationship between sounds and letters. Other exercises show the relationship between intonation and punctuation patterns of written English.

PHONOLOGY ACTIVITIES

Primary

Phonemes-alliterations

A. Have children think of a color.

B. Then think of something that begins with the same sound.

C. Next add an action word beginning with the same sound.

Examples:	red	ribbons	rip
	purple	pie	puffs
	brown	bells	bong

D. Number names may also be used.

Rhyming Words

A. Provide key words

cat	hand	bell
rat	band	fell
mat	sand	tell

B. Children use same pattern to build rhyming words.

Building Sentences

Have children try to develop sentences using as many words beginning with the same sound as possible.

The sad cat sang a soft sorrowful song.
A tall boy told a terrible tale.

Clap Your Hands

Have children listen for a certain sound such as /st/ as you read a story. Let children clap their hands every time they hear the sound at the beginning of a word.

Riddles Game

Let children make rhymes containing riddles. The teacher

starts the game by using a riddle such as the following.

I rhyme with house.
I eat cheese.
What am I?

I rhyme with hog.
I like to chase cats.
What am I?

Substitution Game

Place the following sentences on the board. Have children pick the correct rhyming word. Tell them to choose the word which makes sense.

Jane has a _____ doll.
joy toy

Billy _____ to play ball.
bikes likes

Dick hurt his _____.
hand band

Intonation

After reading a story, pick some sentence and read it to the children. Read it several different times stressing a different word each time. Lead children to discover how stress affects meaning of the sentence.

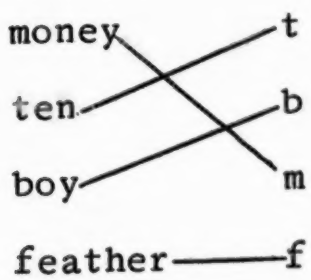
Tom likes to play hide-and-seek.

Tom likes to play hide-and-seek.

Tom likes to play hide-and-seek.

Matching Game

Have children match words with phonemes using the beginning sounds of the word.



Let Your Ears Tell You

Children are asked to listen for /d/. Tell them to raise their hand if they hear /d/ in a word. When they raise their hands have a child tell whether he hears /d/ at the beginning, the middle or the end of the word.

High or Low

This is a game which will help children discover that sentences have high and low pitch just as music does. First sing some familiar song with the children. Have them raise their hands high above their heads as the tone goes up and bring their hands down as the tone gets low. After doing this tell the children that their voices do the same thing as they talk. Let children listen carefully as you say a sentence. Let them move their hands as their ears hear the high and low sound.

Jack saw a dog.
h l

Where is Mother?
l h

First graders will not be able to give the medium sounds but they can discover the general pitch of the asking and the telling sentence.

Intonation and Meaning (Jack and the Beanstalk)

When reading to children put as much feeling using intonation as you possibly can. Ask children such questions as:

> How do you think Jack's mother sounded the morning that the cow gave no milk and she had nothing to eat? Who can say "What shall we do, what shall we

do? just like Jack's mother said it?

How do you think Jack sounded when he said, "Cheer up, Mother, I'll go and get work somewhere."

Grocery Store

Children bring cartons, boxes, cans, and bottles, and set up their own toy grocery. Using toy money, the child with a sound such as s buys items that have s in their names, such as salt, soap, soup, mustard, or salad dressing. To be able to buy the item the child must articulate the word correctly.

Circle Game

Put a circle on the board and then divide it into a number of sections. Put one or more new words in each section. Have the children close their eyes and point at the circle, saying, "Round and round I go, and when I stop, I stop here." The child opens his eyes and attempts to pronounce the word or words on which his pointer landed. Correct pronunciation of the words in the block gives the child a point and another turn. A simple wheel with a pointer may be used as a permanent aid.

The Grab Bag

Objects with the sound in their name to be learned are placed in a bag. In the th bag, for example, are a clothes pin, birthday card, feather, thimble, a piece of leather, or a mouth organ. Children are to identify each object by pronouncing the name of the article correctly.

The Question

Questions may be asked that call for answers requiring the speaking of the sound to be learned. For example, in teaching the s sound, the following questions are appropriate:

1. "The number after six is _____." (seven)
2. "The grocer put the potatoes in a _____." (sack)
3. "He washed his dirty hands with _____." (soap)
4. "Cotton is not hard but is _____." (soft)
5. "After Friday comes _____." (Saturday)

Intonation

The teacher writes Oh, Daddy on the board. She tells the students that they can be actors or actresses. They can tell other people how they feel by the way they say something. She lets the children say the sentence.

The teacher tells the children that they can make other people feel differently by the way they say something. They can make other people angry, or make them smile, or make them feel like doing what they want them to do by being careful the way they say something.

From O'Donnell, Mabel. All Through the Year. Evanston, Illinois: Harper and Row, 1966, p. 136.

Sounds of the Plural Signal

The teacher writes a dog, a cat, a house on the board. She asks children what should she do to make a dog mean two. She shows them how they would add the letter s to make the word mean more than one. She tells them that s is the signal for more than one.

She asks them if all three s's sound alike. She points out to them that s on dogs says z, cats has an s sound, and houses has an ez sound.

O'Donnell, Mabel. op. cit., p. 153.

Junctures in Counting

Children are told that meaning is given to words by saying parts of them strongly at different times. Some words are curled up or down at the ends, and that the words mean more when this is done.

Five children are asked to stand in a row. A sixth child is asked to count to five slowly, pointing to each as he counts. The child will probably say the first four, counting on a rising inflection, and the fifth on a downward turn.

The count is repeated, exaggerating the inflections a bit. The child is asked to count the five over and over. The child will probably become tired and make the five count very rapidly at the end.

The teacher points out that the child is tired and the way she counted demonstrated this.

O'Donnell, Mabel. op. cit., p. 119.

Shifting Syllable Stress

Children are asked if they know what a horsefly is. They are asked to say it aloud. They are told that it is a big fly that buzzes around. The children are asked to say horsefly again and listen to the part that they say more strongly.

The teacher then tells the students that she is going to give

them a sentence in which horse and fly mean something different. "Did you ever see a horse fly?" The children are then given other examples of putting stress elsewhere change the meaning as lemon drop, kitchen sink.

The children are told that the way in which they say words may change the meaning.

O'Donnell, Mabel. op. cit., p. 117.

Shifts in Stress and Juncture

The teacher writes this sentence on the board: Peter, dinner's ready! The teacher reads the sentence aloud to the children with stress. She tells them: "That is something Peter's mother said to him. She said it to him four times in four different ways. Now, four of you girls will take turns being Peter's mother, and I will tell each of you what was going on when Peter was called to dinner."

"One-Pretend that you are in the kitchen. You can see Peter. He is in the next room, and not doing much of anything. Tell him about dinner." (Child should give matter-of-fact reading of the sentence. There is no emotional stress.)

"Here is the next of Peter's mothers. This time you come to the back porch and Peter is at the far end of the backyard. Call him to dinner."

The next child is told that she (the mother) sees Peter down the block and calls him to dinner.

The last child is told that she is calling Peter from his room and this is the third time that she has called him.

The teacher discusses with the children the different tones of voices as each child (mother) called Peter.

O'Donnell, Mabel. op. cit., p. 130.

Junctures

The teacher tells children to listen to her while she says, "I scream for ice cream." She then has the children to say it together. She asks the children to listen to see if the same sounds are not put together differently. She points out that the difference is where she puts the break between the two words. Another example to use is how swell, and house well.

O'Donnell, Mabel. op. cit., p. 124.

MORPHOLOGY

Morphology is the study of word forms. It is concerned with the meaningful grouping of sounds that make up the words of a particular language. The emphasis is on the grammatical grouping of sounds, rather than on the meaning that the grouping signifies.

A morpheme is a single piece of meaning expressed by a word or a piece of a word. The idea of the morpheme may be further clarified by means of an illustration. Let us consider boy's. Boy's contains the meaning of the word boy, which we might define as a small child. But it also contains the possessive meaning. The apostrophe and the s tells us that the boy has something. So the single word boy's contains two meanings: it has the meaning of boy and also the meaning of possession. Therefore, boy's is two morphemes: boy + possession. In a similar way, boy and -hood are two morphemes because they are two meaningful units. Although boyhood is only one word, we still have two morphemes.

The study of modern English morphology properly concerns itself with different sorts of word-forms. One of these is inflectional classes in our language. There are four such classes:

1. Nouns regularly have forms for plural and genitive cases which are made by adding /s/, /z/, or /ez/ to the uninflected stem; poets, kings, and cabbages.

2. Verbs regularly have forms for past tense which

are made by adding /t/, /d/, or /ed/ to the uninflected stem; helped, encouraged, and aided.

3. Adjectives regularly have forms for comparison which are made by adding /er/ and /est/ to the uninflected stem; bigger, biggest.

4. The pronouns have an odd set of variant forms which express objective case; I, me; he, him; she, her; we, us; they, them; and who, whom; in addition, they have genitive and reflexive forms.

The inflectional morpheme does not change the word class but expresses a grammatical category like tense in verbs or plurality or comparison in adjectives.

A derivational morpheme is one that usually changes a word from one word class or subclass to another. For example, er makes a noun of the verb work. (See chart for others.)

Some morphemes are said to be "free" in that they carry meaning in the language all by themselves (boy, large, help); others are said to be "bound" in that they express meaning only when connected with another morpheme(boys, boyish, boyhood; larger, largeness, enlarge; endanger, dangerous; helped, helpful, helpless). Bound morpheme affixes may be either prefixes or suffixes. There is a third and somewhat more complex morpheme, the "bound base morpheme." The word cranberry contains an example. The form cran- in cranberry is not an affix morpheme; neither does it regularly stand alone. Cran-, then, is neither a free nor an affix morpheme. It does, however, occur in a posibion that free morphemes do occupy, as in blueberry, blackberry, strawberry. The bound

base morpheme, which is what cran- is called, may be defined as a morpheme that regularly stands where free morphemes stand but is itself neither free nor an affix.

Sound variations within a particular morpheme are spoken of as allomorphs. For example, the plural is the sound /ez/ in dishes, the sound /s/ in cats, the sound /z/ in mothers. The three distinct sounds that indicate plurality are allomorphs of the same morpheme since all three mean "more than one." Some English words form their plural without any addition to the word: man-men, tooth-teeth, sheep-sheep. Linguists refer to this as a zero or unmarked allomorph of the plural morpheme. Others such as ox-oxen, criterion-criteria are listed as exceptions.

Morphology is an interesting part of structural linguistics, one that can perhaps be well used in teaching vocabulary mastery and growth.

The following charts (taken from A Curriculum for English, University of Nebraska) may be used as guides to serve teachers of all levels of elementary school. They could form the nucleus of class discussions and observations of word formation in the literature that is read to students or in the children's composition.

CHART I

NOUN SUFFIXES

ac	maniac, hypochondriac
ace	grimace, populace, furnace
acy	diplomacy, efficacy, accuracy
ade	decade, serenade, lemonade
aire	millionaire, solitaire
an	Anglican, human, artisan
ance	constancy, pregnancy, flippancy
ant	servant, applicant, confidant
ar	mortar, vicar, calendar
ard	blizzard, standard, drunkard
ary	dictionary, aviary, granary
asm	enthusiasm, iconoclasm, chasm
ate	acetate, mandate, candidate
cy	normalcy, residency
dom	Christendom, kingdom, freedom
e	naivete, fiance, finale
eau	portmanteau, chateau
ee	employee, filigree, refugee
eer	volunteer, engineer
en	kitten, mitten, heathen, citizen
ence	correspondence, dependence, permanence
ency	dependency, emergency, despondency
end	dividend, legend, minuend
ent	rodent, assent, correspondent
er	teacher, meter, customer
ery	fishery, cookery, bindery
ese	Portuguese, Genoese, Chinese
ess	actress, goddess, songstress
et	cabinet, blanket, pocket
ette	cigarette, etiquette, kitchenette
ety	society, piety, propriety
eur	amateur, chauffeur, connoisseur
hood	childhood, likelihood, brotherhood
ial	credential, official
ian	physician, barbarian, centenarian
ice	justice, service, prejudice
ics	italics, statistics, dynamics
ide	cyanide, sulfide
ier	cavalier, cashier, premier
ine	discipline, medicine, gasoline
ion	solution, ambition, million
is	basis, crisis, emphasis
ism	capitalism, idealism, rationalism
ist	scientist, dentist, Buddhist
ite	socialite, granite, bauxite
itis	arthritis, appendicitis
ity	mobility, creativity, longevity

ive	motive, detective, directive
kin	mannikin, lambkin, catkin
le	castle, ladle, cattle
let	bracelet, ringlet, leaflet
ling	hireling, gosling, duckling
ment	fragment, instrument, government
or	error, favor, elevator
ry	jewelry, foundry, cavalry
ship	friendship, scholarship, lordship
sion	illusion, expansion, erosion
ster	youngster, songster, jokester
t	plant, weight, height
tain	captain, mountain, chieftain
th	birth, growth, health, truth
tion	action, caution, condition
trix	aviatrix, directrix, executrix
try	deviltry, casuistry, artistry
tude	altitude, fortitude, multitude
ty	liberty, beauty, novelty
ule	molecule, capsule, globule
um	curriculum, medium, linoleum
ure	picture, culture, furniture
us	chorus, syllabus, sinus
y	story, Italy, dolly

CHART II

VERB AFFIXES

Prefixes	
be	beset, bemoan, besmear
en	enthrone, endanger, enclose
em	embark, emblazon, embed
y	yclept
re	rebuild, reawaken, reconfirm, reheat
with	withdraw, withhold

Suffixes	
ate	refrigerate, delineate, animate
en	darken, strengthen, weaken
esce	acquiesce, coalesce
ify	justify, simplify
ize	ostracize, utilize, economize

Ify and ize are almost always verb affixes; the other affixes may go with other parts of speech, and are not certain signals.

CHART III

ADVERB SUFFIXES

ly	quickly, haltingly, suspiciously
time	anytime, sometime, everytime
where	anywhere, somewhere, nowhere, everywhere
way	anyway, someway
long	headlong, sidelong, endlong
place	anyplace, someplace
ward	homeward, forward, westward, inward
ways	sideways, endways, lengthways
wise	clockwise, sidewise, weatherwise, otherwise
day	someday
meal	piecemeal
side	beside, aside, inside, outside

Some word endings with suffixes may undergo a shift to the adjective function: a piecemeal solution, an outward threat. A few ly words function as adjectives, but ly adverbs seldom function as adjectives (He was a quickly man). Such words as everywhere, beside, elsewhere, otherwise, likewise, backward, and sometimes are rarely shifted. Words using the inflectional suffixes characteristic of the adverb do not generally shift to another function.

CHART IV

ADJECTIVE AFFIXES

Prefix	
a	asleep, afloat, adrift, alone
Suffixes	
able	drinkable, peaceable, comfortable, lovable
ac	cardiac, maniac, demoniac, zodiac
al	casual, annual, economical, hysterical
an	American, urban, European, human, Anglican
ant	radiant, defiant, valiant, pliant
ar	regular, singular, popular
ary	auxiliary, military, primary, voluntary
ate	graduate, separate, passionate, proportionate
ed	molded, covered, cultured, exchanged

en	hidden, written, risen, golden
ent	despondent, insistent, consistent
eous	courageous, beauteous, aqueous, vitreous
escent	convalescent, obsolescent, adolescent
ese	Portuguese, Chinese, journalese
esque	picturesque, grotesque, burlesque
ful	graceful, beautiful, harmful
ial	special, artificial, superficial
ian	artesian, Brazilian, Italian, Grecian
ible	edible, feasible, dividible, eligible
ic	specific, Olympic, photographic, classic
ical	economical, physical, historical
id	humid, fluid, morbid, sordid
ile	fragile, agile, docile, mobile, virile
ing	reading, writing, talking
ine	feminine, masculine, divine, crystalline
ious	religious, rebellious, anxious, contagious
ish	girlish, snobbish, devilish, bluish
ite	infinite, definite, favorite, exquisite
ive	native, motive, restive, creative
less	merciless, homeless, colorless, treeless
like	godlike, homelike, childlike, lifelike
ly	lovely, heavenly, fatherly, hourly
ory	sensory, auditory, deprecatory
ose	verbose, morose, grandiose, cellulose
ous	jealous, pious, poisonous
uous	sensuous, ambiguous, virtuous, strenuous
some	lonesome, tiresome, meddlesome
th	ninth, fourth
y	fiery, rosy, rainy, spicy
ual	visual, residual, sensual

None of these is necessarily confined to the adjective, since almost any adjective may be converted into a noun through the use of the noun indicator (as the beautiful).

MORPHOLOGY ACTIVITIES

Primary

Inflectional Affixes-plurals

Millions of Cats

Show children how they can add endings to some words (nouns) to make them plural.

cat	cats	hundred	hundreds
hill	hills	million	millions
stripe	stripes		

At this point the teacher should not go into the exceptional form such as mice and mouse.

Inflectional Affixes-noun Plurals-Adjective Comparisons

Snow White and the Seven Dwarfs

Give the children opportunities to use "fair," "fairer," and "fairest." After talking about this in relation to the story, give the children other opportunities to use other words such as:

strong	stronger	strongest
long	longer	longest
tall	taller	tallest
big	bigger	biggest

Pelle's New Suit

Listen for words ending in s as you read a page.

Put the words the children recall on the board. Then ask the children to decide which s words meant more than one, which s words were possessives; which words have s as a part of their regular spelling.

Pelle's coat grew only shorter.

One day Pelle took a pair of shears and cut off all the lamb's wool.

So Pelle raked the tailor's hay and fed his pigs.

The Ugly Duckling

The teacher may direct the children to listen for words that "change" during the course of the story as she reads "The Ugly Duckling" to them.

Examples:

ugly	uglier
swim	swimming

Inflectional Affixes - Nouns, Verbs, Adjectives

The teacher may ask the students to arrange words in three separate boxes on the basis of the kinds of endings which they will take.

Box 1	Box 2	Box 3
_____s	_____s	_____er
_____'s	_____ed	_____est
_____s'	_____ing	

Such words as the following may be used for this exercise:

dog	pretty	runner
walk	mat	lovely
fine	plow	mill
cat	tiger	fast
wiggle	baseball	canoe

Practice With Endings

(ness, ess, y, ly should be written on the board)

The children should be told that they are going to work on endings. They will be given two sentences. The teacher will not say the last word of the second sentence. The children are to pick out one word from the first sentence, add an

ending to it that will make it fit properly in the second sentence.

They used to have a steward on this airplane.
Now they have a _____. (stewardess)

He was a slow runner.
He ran very _____. (slowly)

There was mud on his shoes.
His shoes were very _____. (muddy)

She was a swift skater.
She won the race with her _____. (swiftness)

O'Donnell, Mabel. op. cit., p. 234.

Past Tense Without Change in Verb Form

The teacher tells the children, "Today I jump. Yesterday I jumped." She asks the children what was done to jump to make it mean something that happened yesterday. They will probably say that she added an ed or d sound.

She tells the children that they can not make all words tell about the past in this way. She tells them that "Today I run. Yesterday I ran." She points out to them that they changed the letters rather than adding a d.

The teacher then shows them that some verbs do not even change spelling or sound. "Yesterday I cut my finger. Today I cut my finger." This is an example of a verb that does not change. She gives them some other examples.

Tonight I will put the cat out.
Does your leg hurt?
Shut the door!

O'Donnell, Mabel. op. cit., p. 229.

Practice with Endings

The teacher writes y, th, ly, ing. The children are told that they will work with twin sentences. They will have to pick out of the first sentence one word and put one of the endings on it. Then they will try to use the word correctly at the end of the next sentence.

Example: There was sand on the floor. The floor was sandy.

Sentences:

He was the strongest man in the world.
He was famous for his _____. (strength)

Fred likes to run.
Every time I see him he is _____. (running)

Bill is never sick and he has lots of money. He has both _____ and _____. (health and wealth)
If he has health and wealth, we can say thay he is _____ and _____. (healthy, wealthy)

She just sits and knits all day long.
I don't think she should do so much _____. (sitting or knitting)

He rode on a very slow train.
The train went very _____. (slowly)

O'Donnell, Mabel. op. cit., p. 240.

Adding Suffix "er"

Children are told that they are going to talk about a kind of word that tells what people do. People swim, or eat, or study, or walk, or ride. Any of these doing words can be taken and have a little bit of sound added to the end and change them into names of doers.

Swim, for instance, becomes swimmer. The teacher then asks "What is a person who rides? A person who walks? A person

who teaches?"

The teacher then demonstrates to the children that if the er is removed, the name of some kind of doing is left as farmer-farm.

O'Donnell, Mabel. op. cit., p. 149.

Adding "ish"

The teacher says child and then adds ish to it, to make a new word childish. The children are told that this means like a child. She then asks the children if they can add ish to green and tell what the new word would mean.

She tells them that childish means to act like a child while greenish means sort of green. Words are then given to children so that they can add ish to them. (girl, fool, boy, man, clown, black). Children are asked to give rough definitions of the resulting words.

O'Donnell, Mabel. op. cit., p. 164.

Sounds of the Past Tense Signal

The teacher writes three sentences upon the board. Now I play. Now I laugh. Now I shout. She then asks the children what would they say to mean that they played yesterday; laughed yesterday; shouted yesterday. She writes these three sentences under the first three. Yesterday I shouted. Yesterday I laughed. Yesterday I played.

She asks the children if the ending ed's sound alike. The different ending sounds are pointed out. Other words are then given to children to see if they end with the same

sound or not.

O'Donnell, Mabel. op. cit., p. 159.

Morphology

Children are told that they can put special endings on some words, but not on all words. If they put the wrong ending on a word, it would sound very funny. The word beauty is a word that ful can be added to make it beautiful. Instead of saying the beauty of the day, a person can say the beautiful day.

To mean full of pie a person would not say pieful. The teacher calls out words to students and they decide if ful could be added. (Some good words are joy, help, hate, sorrow, many, wonder, plenty, grass, pity, and hope.)

Children are asked to notice that a pocket full of money is two separate words. In a cupful of water, cupful is one word, but cupful means a cup full of something, not something full of cup. Joyful means full of joy, but teaspoonful means a teaspoon full of something.

O'Donnell, Mabel. op. cit., p. 174.

Adding "th" to Make Nouns

Children are told that warm is the kind of word that tells more about another word. Warm is used to describe a house, warm house. When th is added to a word like warm, the new word is warmth. Warmth cannot be used to describe a coat by saying warmth coat but by saying the warmth of a coat.

The teacher then gives children some words to see if they

can add th to them to make new words. (green-no, tall-no, strong-yes, strength, long-yes, length.)

O'Donnell, Mabel. op. cit., p. 170.

Onomatopoeia

The teacher says ting-a-ling. She then asks the children if the word ting-a-ling sounded like a little bell. She would then tell the children if they would every say "I heard the ting-a-ling of the church bells." She would then tell them that some people think that many of our words are only imitations of real sounds. Ting-a-ling would be a good example. Bow-wow, splash, crash, whiz, and crack are other examples of imitations of real sounds. The teacher would then give some examples of these sentences and ask children if a real sound was being imitated in the sentences.

Morphology

(Adding y to nouns to make adjectives.) The teacher writes dirt on the board. She then asks the children what it says and tells them this, "You can talk about dirt and you can hold it in your hand. Dirt is a thing. Who can think of one little letter that we can put at the end of dirt to make it a word that tells about something else? Dirty!

"Dirty is not the same kind of word as dirt, is it? You can't hold a dirty in your hand. Of course, you can hold a dirty something in your hand--a dirty shirt, for instance. And you may even hold the dirty shirt in your dirty hands. We can change some words by adding y but not others. I will

call on you one at a time and say a word. You decide whether it will make a good word when you add the y to it." The teacher then gives each student a word and he says it with a y--if it can be changed to an adjective.

O'Donnell, Mabel. op. cit., p. 179.

FORM CLASSES

The study of morphology directs our attention to the structure of words, to their forms. When the various phonemic elements are combined into meaningful units, these units can be recognized by their particular form, so that boy carries meaning of and by itself, and skip does the same thing. But ignoring meaning, we can say that they represent two classes of words.

The linguist then classifies words into two large groups: the form classes and the structure or function words. The form classes include four large classes: Nouns or Form Class I; Verbs or Form Class II; Adjectives or Form Class III; and Adverbs or Form Class IV. The linguist further uses four basic considerations to determine the characteristics of the Form Classes: (1) affixes, inflectional or derivational (2) word order in the basic English sentence patterns (3) structure or function words and (4) stress.

See the accompanying chart for the explanation of the inflections, derivational affixes, word order and function words for each of the four large classes. In order to understand this chart the following information concerning the structure or function words will probably be helpful.

Among the function words that are used to identify the four form classes the following are important:

1. Determiners signal, or warn us that a noun will follow shortly.

They also point out and limit. The list below is partial:

DETERMINERS

the	my	that	several
a	your	this	most
an	his	those	all
some	her	few	no
many	their		one, two, etc.

2. Auxiliaries precede verbs and are used largely to give a finer shade of meaning. They have been divided into two groups:

AUXILIARIES

Modals	Verb-Form
can	have
may	be
will	
shall	
must	
could	
might	
would	
should	

3. Intensifiers are words that pattern like very and that signal both adjectives and adverbs.

CLUES FOR IDENTIFYING THE FORM CLASSES

Form Class	Inflections	Function Words	Syntactic Positions (Slots)	Typical Derivational Affixes
Noun	-s, -es(plural) -'s, -s'(poss.)	Determiners	I saw the ____. ____ are here. His ____ is here.	-ment -ness -ity etc.
Verb	-s(3rd per. sing.) -ing -ed, d, t	Auxiliary	They will ____(it). They ____(it). Please ____(it).	en- be- -ify etc.
Adjective	-er -est	Intensifier(very) more, most	He was (very) ____. He seemed ____.	-able -ible -ish etc.
Adverb	-er -est	Intensifier(very) more, most	He worked ____. He walked ____. He left ____.	-ways -ly etc.

FORM CLASSES ACTIVITIES

Primary

Inflectional Affixes - Nouns

The teacher reads a story to the children. The children are instructed to listen for words that end with s. Put the words on the board as the children recall them. Then ask the children to decide (1) which s words mean more than one, (2) which s words are possessives, and (3) which s words have the s as part of the regular singular word.

Inflectional Affixes - Adjectives

The teacher presents several balls, dolls, or boxes of different sizes to the children. The children describe each object as the teacher presents it. They may say, "It is a small ball." or "It is a little ball." The teacher then holds up another ball of a different size. The children compare the two balls. They may decide that one is smaller than another or that one is bigger than another. Have the children compare the sizes of all three balls. They decide which is the smallest and which is the largest. Do similar exercises with other adjectives.

Inflectional Affixes - Verbs

Help a pupil manipulate a toy dog so that it walks, runs, sits, stands, and lies down. Give the corresponding directives, having half the children repeat the directive while the other half pretend to follow the action. Say, "Run, Spot." Ask, "What is Spot doing?" The children answer, "Spot is

running."

Form Classes

Have children group words according to what they tell. The following categories may be used.

Words that name people or things.

Words that tell what to do.

Words that tell how.

The following are some words that may be used with young children.

girl	pretty	jump
run	eat	mother
funny	good	doctor
ball	help	apple

Fill the Blank

Have children underline words which would make sense.

Mary has a little _____.
cat doll the pretty hat

Bill can run _____.
fast slow go away the

Mary looks _____.
pretty get lovely clean dirty walk

Tom can _____.
run sit hop fun walk no

Adjectives

An exercise such as the following may lead children to realize that some words help to paint pictures.

When I tell you about Jane, I like to use more than one word. I do not say just brown when I talk about her hair. I talk about her pretty brown hair. Can you use more than one word

and tell me about her eyes? about her shoes, socks, etc.?

Noun Markers

Tell the children that many things can be done with words. We can take the word bake and make baker out of it. A baker is someone who bakes. We can take the word fly and make flyer out of it. A flyer is someone who flies. Did you hear a little sound that makes a baker from bake and flyer to fly? Who can tell what that sound is? (Do not try to identify sound with the spelling er or or.) Then have the children finish the following sentences. A boxer is a person who (boxes.) A reader is a person who (reads).

Inflectional Affixes

Place sentences on the board and have the children fill the blank with the correct word.

The girls _____ with the doll yesterday.
plays played playing

Jane is _____ with her doll now.
plays played playing

Dick _____ with the ball.
plays played playing

Other sentences can be used to employ er, and est; also s and 's.

Prepositional Phrases

Ask the children who can tell you where apples grow. Instruct them to use the word in or on when they give their answers. Pictures may be shown to the children. Ask about the pictures in a way which will require an answer using a preposition.

Examples:

Where is the little girl? (in a swing)

Where did the little girl put her Easter eggs? (in a basket)

Noun Modifiers

Tell the children to close their eyes and imagine that they are having a picnic in the park. Let them tell what they see. Have them start their sentences with I see.

I see a squirrel in a tree.

I see a lady roasting weiners.

Using the other senses you may have them make sentences beginning with I hear, I taste, I smell.

Verb Markers

Have children supply the correct word orally.

I can (run, runs).

Dick can (run, runs).

The car (run, runs).

Lead the children to see that we say I run, you run, and he runs. Other singular and plural subjects, including pronouns to tie up with a number of verbs may be used in a similar manner.

Noun Markers

Tell the children to listen as you say the boy, the boys. Then ask the children if they heard a difference. Tell them that a little sound signal tells the difference. Listen and tell me what the signal tells you. When I say boy I am

talking about only one boy. Now you add the little bit of extra sound and boys means more than one. Continue with other words such as table, tables; house, houses.

Conjunctions

Tell the children that when you play baseball you need a bat and ball. Ask them what two things they need. Then ask, "What word did you say to connect the two things you need?" (and) Tell them that and is often used to connect words which go together.

Examples:

pencil and paper
soap and water
blouse and skirt

Word Order - Matching a Given Sentence

Have the children arrange word cards in a pocket in the same order as a sentence given on the chalkboard or flip chart.

Word Order - Picking a Subject

Write this sentence on the board or place it in the pocket chart, leaving a blank space for the subject. "The _____ is running." Have the children think of different words that will fit this slot.

Word Order - Choosing a Verb

Use the above exercise filling in the subject but leaving the verb slot open. "The dog _____." The children will think of things a dog may do.

Inflectional Affixes - Nouns

Read a short story to the children. Instruct them to listen

for words ending with s. (The teacher may adapt this exercise for other endings as she desires.) List the words on the board as the children recall them. Discuss what the s in each word means.

Inflectional Affixes - Nouns and Adjectives

Have the children think of as many words as they can that end with er. (examples: farmer, faster, runner, wider, etc.) The children might be led to the recognition that these words fall into two more general groups. They should recognize that words like faster mean more fast, more wide, etc., while words like farmer mean one who farms, one who runs, etc. They should discover that the words in which the er mean more can't add a further s and still be real words.

Word Order - Nouns, Verbs, Adjectives, and Adverbs

This exercise is designed to help the children to gain an understanding of syntactic form classes as they see that certain kinds of words are needed to fill certain blanks or slot.

Rewrite part of a story, replacing some of the nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs with blanks. Include the omitted words in a list with other words that would fit the slots. Have the children choose the best word for each slot. Then have them suggest other words that could be used in the slots.

Inflectional Affixes - Verbs

The teacher writes three sentences on the board using different tenses of the same verb. (The man walks to town. The

man walked to town. The man will walk to town.) Discuss how using the different forms of the verb changes the meaning of the sentences. Help the children make similar changes in other sentences. Then ask them to change the tense in other sentences. Some irregular verbs may be used in order to challenge the more able students.

Inflectional Affixes - Adverbs

The teacher puts a sentence on the board leaving a blank after the verb. "The man walked _____." Ask the students to think of words that may be used in this slot. Write the words on the board as they are given. Let the children make generalizations as to how the words are alike. Give the children similar sentences with the same slot open to see if the same words or same type of words maybe used as fillers.

"Slot-filler" Paper Strips

The teacher instructs the students to make as many sentences as possible using their "Slot-filler" paper strips. (See Linguistics section of Intermediate Guide for directions.) The children should discover that certain types of words follow other types. (A noun usually follows a word like the, an, a. The ly words may follow an action word but they may also be used in several other positions in a sentence.) They may discover that some nouns may be switched with other nouns in the same sentence, but that the switch changes the meaning of the sentence. (The dog bit the man. The man bit the dog.) (See instructions - 4th, 5th and 6th grades)

Word Order -Adjectives

Give the children a sentence leaving a blank before the nouns. (The _____ girl walked with the _____ dog.) List the words on the board as the children suggest the fillers for these slots. Try using the same list of fillers for adjective slots in similar sentences.

SYNTAX

Syntax is the study of meaningful combinations or infinite variety of order of words. This is parallel to the commutative law of addition in mathematics.

Structural Classifications

English has at least ten basic sentence patterns. Here are the five most basic ones:

Pattern 1	Noun Squirrels	Verb run	(Adverb) quickly
Pattern 2	Noun Man	Verb seems	(Adjective) good
Pattern 3	Noun John	Verb is	Noun 1 boy
Pattern 4	Noun John	Verb saw	Noun 2 Bill
Pattern 5	Noun John	Verb Noun 2 gave Bill	Noun 3 a present

Expanding Sentence Patterns

The basic noun-verb pattern can be expanded in various ways. A realistic way of expanding by modifying is by adding adjectives, adjective phrases, adverbs, and adverb phrases or clauses to a very simple sentence. This does not change the pattern but makes the sentence more specific.

Example:

The little brown/squirrels\in the tree/played\happily.

The sentence now tells the size and color of the squirrels, where they are and how the squirrels played. The is always a determiner.

Methods with Appositives

Any major sentence pattern may be expanded by the addition of appositives; that is; two interchangeable elements.

Example: Gary, my brother, went on a picnic.
appositive

Adjectives, verbs, and adverbs might be used in the same way.

Methods with Compounding

We can also expand our sentences by compounding equivalent elements.

Example: Gary and Bob went on a picnic.

Adjectives, verbs, and adverbs might be used in the same way.

Example: Gary went skating and swimming.

Syntax is much too complicated for children to understand fully; but if we get them to realize that there is a reason for shifting, changing, adding, and cutting words, we will have more mature writers. Encourage children to rewrite so that they might have a chance to revise and find mistakes. By the time a child reaches school age, he has fairly well mastered the pattern of English sentences and can use the structural forms, although he cannot yet identify or describe them. He makes use of the most important feature: word order.

Transformations

The approach to syntax described above is basically an I-C (Immediate Constituent) structuralist description. It has its uses for the teaching of composition, but another quite rigorous approach to syntax is gaining attention: the

transformational generative approach.

When linguists speak of transformation, they are referring to the kinds of moves which may be made with the parts of basic English sentences. The phrase structure rules of modern English is the background against which transformation work. This phrase-structure may be thought of as a systematic series of divisions of the sentence as a whole. A transformation is a systematic shifting of the parts of the phrase-structure patterns. Examples are the transformation for passive voice, of verb particles, for negation of stress, and for various questions. Transformational grammars are synthetic, rather than analytic. They begin with generalizations about the language - about the phrase structure, possible transformation, and the effect of syntactical changes upon morphology and phonology.

The Roberts English Series: A Linguistics Program (grades 3-9) uses the transformational generative approach to syntax.

SYNTAX ACTIVITIES

Primary

Fun of Expanding

The teacher might start the sentence. Let the children use the pattern and give their expansions while the teacher writes them.

Example:

Mary jumps.
Mary jumps (high).
Mary (jumped over the box).
Etc.

Reading, Writing and Spelling

Introduce the word ink, then have the children practice printing it. Show the words, think, sink, and drink.

Let the children practice saying these words. On a chart, build a pyramid beginning with the word ink.

ink
Add the th think
Add the ing thinking
Add the function word is is thinking
Add a person Tip is thinking.

Do the same thing with sink and drink. Read the charts pyramid by pyramid and let the children read it also. Let the children choose one sentence from each chart and print it.

N-V Sentence Pattern

Give practice with the noun-verb sentence pattern. Start the discussion by saying: Mary sings. Let the children tell other things that Mary does such as: Mary plays. Mary dances. Mary eats. Mary sleeps.

Give other practice with noun-verb pattern by keeping the verb constant while changing the noun.

Examples:

Jane runs. Dick runs. The boys run. The girls run.

Juncture in N-V Pattern

Tell the children that words sometimes like to work together: can play is a team that works together. We say I and then wait just a second before saying the words can play together. (Do not let children exaggerate the break between I and can. Encourage them to replace I.)

Examples:

John can play.
Billy can play.
Mary can sing.
Dick can read.

Pronouns may be substituted for nouns during this exercise.

N-V Pattern with Adverbs

Ask the children to listen to the following sentences and tell which sentence gives the most information.

Jane jumps.
Jane jumps up.

Tell the children that we often add words which give more information.

Examples:

up, down - on, off - in, out

Continue in similar manner using words in sentences. Let the children tell which words help to give more information.

N-V-N Sentence Pattern

Have the children recall making sentences such as Dick plays. Tell them that today you are going to help them make another kind of sentence. Point out that you can say Dick plays ball. As you say this sentence use your hands to show that there are three beats to this sentence. Give primary stress to the second noun.

Continue with:

The girl bakes _____

The boy broke _____

Mother can _____

Making Sentences with Word Cards

Hand out a number of word cards to children. Let them come to the front of the room and stand in order to make a sentence.

Linguistic Blocks

Have a set of these blocks in the room. Let the children play with them. They will learn to make many sentences with them.

Jumbled Words

On the blackboard place words out of order. Let the children place these words in order to make meaningful sentences.

Antonyms

Hold up the word come. Have a pupil do what it says. Then hold up the word go. Let a child do what this says. Lead the children to see that these two words have very different

meanings.

Tell them that we call these words opposites. Through discussion lead them to see that the following words are opposites.

up, down; hot, cold; in, out; big, little; high, low

Determiners

Tell the children to listen to the following sentences and tell which sentence sounds like it is near.

This apple is mine.
That apple is Jane's.

Lead them to realize this is a word that is used to show that something is near and that is used to show something is farther away. Let the children take turns using this and that in sentences.

Lexical Practice

Tell children box is a word that has more than one meaning.

Use the following sentences to illustrate:

Jane put her hat in a box.
Let's put gloves on and box.

Other words to use may be:

It was a long run.
They run to school.

A plant is growing in the flower pot.
Let's plant a tree.

Arranging Sentences in Possible Orders

Use the following sentence and let children arrange it as many ways as possible.

In the middle of the storm somebody knocked at the town gate.

Response:

Somebody knocked at the gate in the middle of the storm.

During the storm somebody knocked at the door.

Combining Several Sentences Into One

"The Real Princess"

There was once a prince.
He wanted a princess.
She must be a real princess.

Show the children how these three sentences can be combined to make one sentence.

Combined:

The prince wanted a real princess.

Clarifying by Expanding

The teacher and the students together can develop miniature stories in sentence form just by expansion.

Example: We played
(My sister and I) played (dolls).
(Three girls, my sister and I) played dolls.
(Three neighbor girls, my sister and I) played dolls (in my room).

These words can be placed in pocket charts as the sentence is built.

Fixed Positions and Movables

Take short sentences from the book and put them on large cards. Give the children one card and have them stand in a line to make a sentence. The children could then move around, exchanging positions to see what other sentences they could form with the same words and to see combinations of words that would not make sense. Differences in meanings

should also be noted as the words are moved.

Pick Up and Move

From one of the stories, a sentence could be printed on individual word cards and placed in a word chart, all scrambled up. The children could unscramble the sentence. Later, the children can think of other descriptive words that could be added and let them add the words to the pockets.

Example:

The bears went walking.
walking bears went The

Add descriptive words, such as:

three
black
in the woods
near their home
finally

But Not "and"

Have the children combine these three sentences into one without using and.

Example:

Mary is swinging.
Mary is outside.
Mary is on the playground.

Mary is outside, on the playground, swinging.

Expanding Sentences

The children are given sentences and two separate words for each sentence. They are told that both words will have to go into the sentence somewhere. The first sentence may be: He is sick today, and the two words not and very. The

children put the words somewhere in the sentence. They will probably answer something like - He is not very sick today.

The pitcher is full of milk. (blue, half)
His sister has a toothache. (never, little)
She put the roses in the vase. (black, pink)
The movie was too long. (scary, much)

O'Donnell, Mabel. op. cit., p. 251.

Expanding Sentences

The children are given a sentence and an extra word. They are to put the extra word where it will fit in the sentence. The cow gives white milk. (brown) Other sentences to be used are:

The black horse won the race. (swift)
Our football team won the game. (easily)
Who didn't clean his shoes? (dirty)
Her beautiful eyes are blue. (deep)
She is sorry that she said it. (very)
Do you have tomatoes in your garden? (any)
I can't find the newspaper anywhere. (Sunday)
The building seems ready to fall down. (old)

O'Donnell, Mabel. op. cit., p. 246.

Transformations - Opposites

The teacher tells the children that they will be given some sentences. They are to change them to mean the opposite. If they are given We won the game, they will say We lost the game.

My brother is too fat.
You can't learn to dance.
Jim will never be a good speller.
All boys are smart.

O'Donnell, Mabel. op. cit., p. 268.

Transformations - Questions

The students are given questions that they are to change

to sentences. They should begin their statements with Maybe.

Do all the leaves turn red in the fall?
Is the dog in or out?
Are squirrels and chipmunks the same kind of animal?
Would it be fun to have a parakeet?
May I go to the park this afternoon?
Why is it dark at night?
Could I ever be President of the United States?
How do I know that I can trust you?

O'Donnell, Mabel. op. cit., p. 263.

Past Tense Forms

Children are told that Today they talk but yesterday they talked. They are told that they just can't always add the d ending to make words tell what happened in the past. They are told that some words are different. They are given a word like feel and asked what would they say about the past - felt. Other words are given and they take turns giving the past tense.

feel	spell	know	ride	learn	hop
talk	take	sell	find	have	make
tease	fly	start	run	sit	swim
is	sing	sand	trip	give	keep
sing	tell	go	think	say	grow
get	throw				

O'Donnell, Mabel. op. cit., p. 188.

Transformation

The children are told that the teacher has some simple sentences for them to change in three ways. First they are to say the sentence is not true. Second, they are to take the sentence that they started with and make it say that it hasn't happened yet, that it will happen later. Third, they

are to take the first sentence again and make it say that it has already happened.

Example: Father goes to work every day. Father will go to work every day. Father went to work every day.

Janet is a detective.
This glue sticks tight.
The knife needs sharpening.
I have a good idea.
You need a haircut.
Girls like to jump rope.
That wastebasket is so full that it is spilling over.
He is willing to go if we go.
I am too tired to paint this fence.
Walking the dog is not my job.

O'Donnell, Mabel. op. cit., p. 277.

DIALECT

One of the most interesting aspects of language is dialect. The imagination and ingenuity of people is reflected in the endless variety of dialects. Dialects can sometimes help us understand the history of our language.

A dialect may be defined broadly as a speech pattern which is used by members of a small group within a large speech community. The term dialect is often used to describe the speech pattern of people who are geographically isolated from the larger speech community. Social dialects are not limited to geographical locations, but are related to educational and social positions.

Dialects generally differ from the main language in pronunciation and vocabulary rather than in grammatical structure.

An understanding of dialect and its major forms is important in every teacher's training. The teacher who is familiar with dialects will understand that local dialects are adequate to describe the ideas and thoughts of the people. This is especially true of teachers who are working with culturally disadvantaged or culturally different children.

Most teachers will, at one time or another, have students from other areas of the country who have dialects quite different from the local community. The teacher should familiarize the student with other dialects so that he will be prepared for times when he will meet people from outside

his own community. The teacher should not attempt to substitute new words for the local dialect if that dialect is sufficient to describe materials being used in the classroom.

For information concerning dialects in America, the teacher might consult Jean Malmstrom and Annabel Ashley, Dialects - U. S. A., available from the National Council of Teachers of English.

DIALECT ACTIVITIES

Primary

Regional Variations in Speech

By the third grade level teachers may begin to acquaint children with the nature of dialect. One possible way of doing this is to take a poll of the class to discover if any of the children have moved recently (within one or two years) from another area of the country. If there are several children in this category the teacher can obtain a large map and point out where these children are from, perhaps by marking former home towns with colored flags. By consulting charts such as those used by dialect geographers (see below), the teacher may be able to prompt the "immigrant" children to recall some of the dialect peculiarities of their home towns. Some children may need no prompting, but most children are not terribly conscious of the existence of dialectal variations. They tend to regard children whose dialect pattern varies from their own as "out-group" people and to make fun of them as eccentric without understanding that "everybody talks the way Johnny talks" in the area from which he came. By using the charts below the teacher allows the children to show themselves that dialects consist not only of vocabulary differences, but pronunciation differences as well. Once a child's general dialect area has been established, he can be asked "which word he uses" to describe the items in Chart I below. Other children may volunteer variant

dialect words, and the different words may be written on the chalkboard. Using Chart I, the teacher can "test" for pronunciation differences and call these differences to the children's attention. An exercise of this sort should be carried out in an enthusiastic and broadminded manner, so that the children will respect, rather than ridicule, various dialects and pronunciations. The geographical divisions in Chart I apply to areas on the east coast of the U. S. The northern area extends from northern New England to central Pennsylvania; the midland area extends from central Pennsylvania to South Carolina in the area which lies west of the Blue Ridge Mountains. Dialect variations are still most pronounced along the east coast but the major linguistic areas have fanned out in a westward direction, so that many of the dialect differences found in the major east coast areas will also be found in the respective northern, central and southern states as far west as the Rocky Mountains. The term "General American" is often used to denote the common speech of the midwestern and western states.

CHART I

North	Midland	South
cow yard	barnyard	barn lot, lot
burlap bag or sack	gunny sack	croker sack
pail	bucket	bucket, slop bucket
wish bone	wish bone	pulley-bone, pull-bone
skunk	skunk, polecat	polecat
angle worm, fish worm	fish worm, fishing worm	earthworm, redworm
spider	skillet	frying pan

CHART II

Eastern New England and New York City Area	Middle Atlantic and Western Pennsylvania (Similar to the General American Area)	South
far/fa/	far/far/	
farm/fam/	farm/farm/	
law/lor/		law/lo/
cart/kat/	cart/kart/	cart/kat/
ideas/aydiyrz/		
	greasy/griysiy/	greasy/griyziy/
	tune/tuwn/	tune/tjuwn/

General American
(Midwest, Northwest, Southwest and
West Coast Areas)

far/far/	orange/orindz/	tune/tuwn/
farm/farm/	dog/dog/	ask/ask/
cart/kart/	fog/fog/	aunt/æ nt/
	Dorothy/dore ə iy/or /dor ə iy/	

Have children who have lived in "other areas" to pronounce the test words; then have children who have not lived in "other areas" say the same word. Ask the children if they can hear differences in the way the words are said. If a child's speech patterns reveal a dialect difference in respect to the majority of the class, record on the chalkboard test words which are pronounced in a manner like the majority as well as the test words which are pronounced in a manner different from that of the majority.

Adapted from Nebraska Curriculum Center. A Curriculum for English; Language Explorations for the Elementary Grades. Lincoln, Nebraska: University of Nebraska Press, 1966, (pp. 165-167)

Dialect (The Ugly Duckling)

Young children need to develop an understanding of the many ways in which people are different. Such things as color of eyes, hair, skin, height, weight will quickly be noted by the children. However, you may have to help them understand that still another difference is the way we talk and feel about certain things. After reading The Ugly Duckling to the

children it is easy to point out the fact that all things have feelings no matter what their differences may be. Point out the fact that we should never laugh at these differences because we will only hurt the one we laugh at. Lead the children to see that the differences in people and things are what makes the world beautiful. Ask them such questions as the following:

Would the world be as pretty if all flowers were white?

Would the world be prettier if all people had black hair?

Explain that differences in the way we talk also adds color to our world of language and make it more beautiful.

After the following exercise has been completed the children may note some differences in the way their classmates speak. Find on the map where these children come from. Point out to the children that they may speak differently because that was the way they learned to speak in the place they came from. Point out that they are adding beautiful color to the classroom. Tell them that you like to hear the way they speak.

USAGE

Linguists believe that a prime function of an English program is to bring the child to familiarity with and an easy use of the forms of the language that are approved in polite and prosperous society. One of the main problems is to identify what is appropriate in polite society.... Authorities disagree on the acceptable speaking form. Some say that it is not incorrect to say "can I" while other authorities do not agree on this.

Linguists usually distinguish three levels of usage: formal, colloquial and illiterate. Formal language is identified as that used in a scholarly article or speech. Colloquial is the type of vocabulary found in a friendly level or an ordinary conversation. Illiterate usage comprises that system of vocabulary of people with little or no education.

Sometimes linguists use two major categories--standard and nonstandard. Standard English usage is that form of speaking and writing used by literate people communicating with each other. Nonstandard English usage is the forms used by uneducated people.

Nonstandard English usage is an adequate means of communication for its users. This nonstandard English is not socially adequate for most of the cultural activities for which the school prepares the child. The teacher should suggest to students standard substitutes rather than condemn existing patterns. The following is a list of nonstandard

words or phrases commonly used by the children:

That was real good
We is or He are
Haven't got any
Leave me do it
Gimme
Brang
John and me are going
He don't
He has took or He taken
Has broke
Have saw
Have ran
Couldn't hardly
He played good

Robert C. Pooley in Teaching English Usage suggested this list of nonstandard words or phrases:

Ain't or hain't
Hair or aire
A orange
Have ate
He give
I got
My brother, he
He run
Have saw
I says
He seen

Linguists believe that by structuring oral sentence patterns for children to repeat, children will become familiar with acceptable usage. Such activities as the ones listed in the following section are examples of pattern drills that can be used.

The following examples of pattern drills are suggested:

1. To encourage correct usage of good and well. Discuss with the children how someone may be a good dancer but dances well. Children can then make up other sentences using good and well. One example might be - He bats the ball well. He is a good batter.

2. To encourage correct usage of he. Tell children that if they will listen to these three sentences, it will help

them to remember to use he in the right place. "He did. John did. John and he did." Ask each student to think of three similar sentences to give orally to the class. Instead of the name John, suggest that they use another name. Let each student say his sentences. Encourage other students to listen to see if the reciting student is "playing the game fair," or using he correctly.

3. Play a game with has gone and have gone. Two players plan to act out a sentence telling where they have gone together. They tell the teacher what they will act out. As they act out their sentence, the teacher may ask, "Where have _____ and _____ gone?" A player will answer, "They have gone to _____." The player who guesses right may choose someone to act out a sentence with him.

4. To encourage children to say "I have not any." Discuss with students the word any and have them use it in sentences answering the question "How many?"
Give students a copy of the following poem:

How Many? Not Any.

How many teeth do you have on your toes?
How many horns on the end of your nose?
I do not have _____.

How many lions do you have under your bed?
How many eyes in the back of your head?
I do not _____ _____.

How many stars do you have in your eyes?
How many cars do you have in the skies?
I do _____ _____ _____.

How many whales do you have at school?
How many seals in your swimming pool?
I _____ _____ _____ _____.

How many mistakes do you have today?
How many, I wonder, how many?
Oh, that is very easy to say.
I'm sure _____ _____ _____ _____ _____.

After students have read poem several times with teacher let them make up their own verses to read orally to the class.

Collins, Nora. Elementary English, "I Ain't Got None," XLIV (Jan. 19, 1967) p. 36.

5. Use a picture such as one of a fireman rescuing a small kitten from a tree. Direct the students as follows: When you talk about animals, you often use the work climbed. Let's make sentences about this picture in which we use climb.
Examples:

A kitten _____ from his soft basket.
He _____ from the lap of a little girl.
He _____ down and ran outside.
He _____ up a tree.
A fireman _____ up to rescue the kitten.

This procedure may be used for drill with any standard forms which students need drill on.

A PROCEDURE FOR ATTACKING USAGE PROBLEMS

There are a variety of ways to attack a problem in usage. The following sequence of steps is adapted from a similar list by Hatchett and Hughes.

1. Find what your group needs. What abilities, what experiences, what interests, and what weaknesses does the group possess?

   Procedures:
   Note most conspicuous errors.
   Listen to children during all types of oral language activities. Listen for language patterns.
   Listen to children in out-of-school situations, i.e., playground, lunchroom, organization meetings.
   Examine written work for errors that are common.
   Make inventories from either standardized or teacher-made tests to find out what children need.

2. Determine which errors should be attacked.

   Procedures:
   Help children incidentally.
   Make an individual diagnostic rating sheet.

3. Select errors to attack.

   Procedures:
   Check class errors against generally recognized usage errors.
   Make a composite chart showing types of errors and

members of the group.

4. Give individual help.

   Procedures:
   Give specific help when needed by an individual.
   Group children by common problems.

5. Help child find his most outstanding errors in his own speech and writing.

   Procedures:
   Use a tape recorder to help him spot speech errors.
   Keep a notebook of his own errors.
   Teach child to proofread for errors.

6. Expand language experiences.

   Procedures:
   Encourage audience situations such as reading, listening to stories, dramatizing, sharing poetry.
   Give praise for good use of language.
   Read good literature.
   Listen to good literature.
   Enjoy choral speaking.
   Listen to recordings.
   Select and view good television shows.
   Use reference charts and posters.
   Use cartoons to illustrate actions of verbs, power of adjectives and adverbs.
   Display children's written work.

7. Help children evaluate.

   Procedures:
   Set up standards with children.
   Take time to evaluate work during and after an activity.
   Use an opaque projector to show written work to group.
   Use an overhead projector to illustrate errors and corrections. Copy a part of written work on chalkboard for class to discuss and evaluate.
   Give children help where it is needed when they are proofreading.

8. Guide children in practice.

   Procedures:
   Use skills periods for common errors.
   Use oral situations.
   Use devices to interest children in usage practice.
   Use language games.

Use workbooks as they are needed in small groups or pairs.
Use textbooks as resource books.

A teacher is most successful with usage teaching if the children are highly cooperative. Such cooperation rests upon the interpersonal relationships existing in the classroom. Children respond to corrections made quietly and with regard for their feelings.

In her usual succinct way, Applegate has made an important point regarding wrong speech patterns. She has said that to help children change wrong speech patterns, first of all there must be a "rich wanting" on the part of the child. Using sarcasm and ridicule in correcting children will never promote a "rich wanting" to change. A child must know what sounds right and he must have a great deal of "good" speech practice.

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